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ABSTRACT

This guide for adult educators is a collection of discussions intended to initiate further inquiry as well as to offer practical suggestions on teaching adults. After a comparison of pedagogy and andragogy, a brief definition of adult education is given. A profile of the adult student is followed by outlines of the importance of guiding and counseling the mature student and suggestions for helping students organize their time and clarify their motivations. Adult development and special adult learning problems are covered. Suggestions are given to help teachers prepare themselves, select a comfortable and appropriate role, understand student needs, and make a good first impression. A section on teaching methods covers logs and such learning situations as independent, correspondence, group, and tutorial study. Listed are various learning atmospheres and areas where they are appropriate. The issues of problem solving and the assumption of a mask by an instructor are discussed. Differences between teaching adults and children and the issues of testing and evaluating adults are covered. The guide concludes with comments on the goals of adult education and such teaching materials as educational television and audiovisual aids. (MN)

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Applied Andragogy

A practical manual for the continuing education of adults

by Gordon C. Godbey

CE 026 554

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PREFACE

A person who intends to change the behavior, beliefs, attitudes, skills, and feelings of another person has serious responsibilities. There is the belief, implicit or explicit, that the person who intervenes into the life of another one, whether as teacher, supervisor, spouse, parent, or in another relationship has superior understanding about what the other person's behavior should be in some specific context, and that the other person's inferior behavior should be changed and can be changed. In some cases the person who intervenes is trying to guide development of emerging behavior. Nothing is being replaced or revised, but some new behavior is being added. Usually this whole matter is very straightforward, as in the case of the person who does not know how to operate a piece of machinery which would offer him the means of employment if he could change his behavior to that of a knowledgeable operator.

Few people question the need to explore motivation beyond the simple need to be able to hold a job. In the case of the military trainee, it is assumed that there is adequate reason for a nation to have an army, a navy, and an air force with people trained in the skills of war, should those be needed. In the case of the adult illiterate it is usually assumed that mastery of the skills of reading, writing, and computation will bring employability, but will also bring personal satisfaction and the opportunity to learn additional things of personal value. One further assumption: if we help people improve as individuals, then their associations will also improve, as will the communities in which they live.

It may not be desirable or necessary in a book on teaching adults to explore at great depth behind the situation which brings teacher and learner together, but the matter cannot be dismissed completely. Perhaps it is enough to say that the teacher, like the soldier or the worker, is ultimately responsible for his own actions. It is no defense to say that someone else arranged for the learning experience to be set up, decided on a curriculum, and set up the institution in which the learning situation came about. Still, the teacher must be able to look clear-eyed into the mirror and say, "What I am attempting to do with other human beings is for their good and for the greater good of humanity." And the criteria for making such judgments are found in history, philosophy, and the major religions. The person who cannot, in good conscience, make that statement should find other employment.

Since it is almost impossible to conceive of one book that deals with all possible aspects of teaching and learning, it must be understood that this book is superficial in a number of ways. This statement is not made as an apology, but rather as a warning, and as an admission by the author that it is understood that this book is designed basically to initiate further inquiry, as well as to offer some suggestions which in the main have been found useful to other persons in teaching/learning situations.

This book is not orderly in its organization, but that should not bother anyone. Probably your experiences in teaching and learning have not been orderly nor logical, either. Repetition has its uses, and so certain things keep bobbing up throughout the book.

The limited bibliography also is intended to raise as many issues as it settles, although a number of the authors are thought of by many readers as being definitive in their time and place. It is hoped that every teacher regards both the field of teaching and the state of knowledge about learning as tentative; furthermore, that the teacher regards himself as a learner. With these thoughts in mind, the reader can perhaps deal with the book and his work in greater comfort.

The word "andragogy" has been brought into use in this country largely by Dr. Malcolm Knowles, well known in adult education circles for many years. Its roots are Greek, as are those of the companion word "pedagogy," used to describe the teaching of children. Here are some explanatory descriptors of both words.

COMPARISONS OF PEDAGOGY AND ANDRAGOGY
(Subject to modification in some situations, obviously)

PEDAGOGY	ANDRAGOGY
1. Assumes a "captive audience," or compulsory attendance, regardless of interest.	1. Assumes the interest of learners must by "captured," or they will not attend learning sessions.
2. Recognizes that the self-concept of a child is that of a dependent person in need of direction by an adult.	2. Recognizes that the self-concept of an adult is that of a mature, independent person, capable of self-direction.

3. Views the teacher as having superior knowledge and imparting this knowledge to the learner.	3. Views the learner as having a reciprocal relationship with the teacher and other learners.
4. Sees the life experience of children as of little value in the learning process.	4. Sees the life experience of adults as vast, varied, and contributing richly to the learning process.
5. Sees the accumulated knowledge and experience of the teacher and other adults as all important and as the primary resource for learning.	5. Sees the accumulated knowledge and life expereince of all learners, as well as the teacher, as valuable resources for learning.
6. Insists that the teacher decide both the content (what will be learned) and the process of learning (how and when the learning will take place).	6. Allows the learner to select the content and the process of learning; content and process are based on individual interests and needs.
7. Sees education as preparing for the future, getting the learner ready to do or accomplish something.	7. Sees education as a process for "problem solving" in the present, for doing something relevant to the present situation of the learner.*
8. Views the primary function of the teacher as managing the content (what is to be leanred), the learning situation, and controlling the behavior of the learner.	8. Views the primary function of the teacher (or trainer) as guiding the learning process, but not controlling behavior in most aspects.
9. Has little or no concern with how the learner feels about the material learned, only how well it is learned.	9. Has great concern for how the learner feels about the content as well as the process of learning and regards positive feeling as important to the retention of the learning.
10. Regards the learner as incapable of evaluating either the utility of past learning or his own need for further learning.	10. Regards the learner as continually evaluating the utility of past learning and assessing his own need for further learning.

*The "problem" may be simply a desire to attain greater information about, or skill in, some subject.

ADULTS WHO LEARN: WORDS, MEANINGS, USAGES

There is a difference between the education of adults and adult education. The education of adults includes accidental learning, unplanned learning, enculturation. It has been said that as children we "breathe the air of history," and as adults we continue to do so. Adult education is the organized, deliberate provision of learning opportunities. Planned learning opportunities take many forms: demonstrations, broadcasts, correspondence lessons, courses, workshops, conferences, performances, field trials, seminars, internships, etc.

In this book, the term "adult education" is used to cover all forms of learning opportunities provided for adults. It therefore includes continuing education—a term most commonly used to refer to those learning opportunities sponsored by colleges, universities, and other similar institutions. Adult education includes "adult basic education," or A.B.E., which is education for adults whose inability to speak, read, or write English language constitutes a considerable handicap.

Rather than continue this list of definitions for pages, readers should refer to the *Handbook of Standard Terminology for Describing Adult Learning Opportunities*, published in 1978 by the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, Boulder, Colorado. The study supporting this handbook cost over $300,000 tax dollars, so have no hesitancy in using it! Not everyone will agree with all the definitions, but unless we accept some common usage, the field of study will continue its wasteful confusion.

ADULTS WHO LEARN

The adult student appears in many forms; the homemaker whose family are not as dependent on her as previously, and who is preparing for a new role in addition to the portions of her former responsibilities which she maintains; the young businessman who has been given to understand by management that he is being considered for a more responsible job, but one which requires his learning additional skills, theories, and content; the young adult who dropped from high school before graduation and who has decided that there is little future in the kinds of jobs he is able to get; the recent arrival from Puerto Rico or Mexico who is looking for a place in the American culture, and who must improve his American language skills to a level at least equal to those of his native Spanish. These examples could be multiplied many times, to include the prisoner in the state penitentiary who is hoping upon release to find a different life; the welfare recipient who wants to earn both money and self respect through employment, and who needs a marketable skill; the would-be community activist who wants to get into local politics but first needs to know more about state and local government, about organization theories, etc.

Several things about these students should be immediately apparent; they are varied in age and interests and ability, they bring a rich life background through which each may contribute to the other under proper circumstances, their inspiration and motivation are probably different from those of the typical secondary and college student.

In a speech March 20, 1978, K. Patricia Cross told an audience at the Chicago meeting of the American Association for Higher Education that "between 80 and 90 percent of the adult population conduct at least one learning project each year and that the typical adult conducts five learning projects per year, spending about 100 hours on each project." She was quoting Alan Tough, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. (1) This reference, however, was to self-teachers, self-learners—not the people you will teach, in most cases.

Your students will largely come from that 30 percent of the adult population identified by Carp, Peterson, & Roelfs in 1974, in a national survey done for Commission on Non-Traditional Study. And as Rivera & Johnstone's great study, *Volunteers for Learning*, done in 1965 showed, (and as others annually reaffirm) this 30 percent are largely—disproportionately—young, white, well educated, and white collar; technical and professional. Success in

(1) "Major learning efforts: Recent research and future Directions," 1977.

The people most likely to be missing from the adult education scene are the poor. How do we fill in the gaps for these citizens?

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learning begets more learning. Failure breeds failure, or most likely, non-participation.

Those of you who want adult education to be a great leveller—a weapon for egalitarianism—need to be up and doing. As it is now, and has been for decades, adult education is widening the gap between the poorly educated and the well educated.

You, the teacher of people like these, need to relate to them in ways somewhat different from the ways in which teachers of children in common schools, or faculties of post-secondary institutions need to relate to their students. This book is intended to assist you in that understanding.

There are a great many other books and articles written about the whole enterprise of adult education, and you may want to explore some of them. The bibliography in the back of this book lists some publications which may be particularly helpful. Conversations with successful teachers of adults will also provide some cues for you as you seek to improve your ability further. You will discover, for example, that the mature student, although often rich in experience and capable of doing a great many things, and knowledgeable about a great many things, still suffers from insecurity and concern about being able to successfully undertake further learning. Generally, this fear comes out more in situations where grades are given, or where the student is evaluated in a formal manner. If the grades and other forms of evaluation go to an employer or someone else, the concern usually is deepened.

Good teaching is an art. Most teaching is done as a craft. There is very little science applied to teaching, and the theories developed about teaching and learning are honored by being ignored in the main. In a paper entitled "The Relation Between Learning Problems of Adult and General Learning Theory," given at the April 5-7, 1978, meeting of the Adult Education Research Conference, Adult Education Association/U.S.A., San Antonio, Dr. Richard Feringer said that our enormous amounts of data "cannot be classified into any coherent bodies of theory by which even reasonably accurate predictions can be made."

On pages 3 and 4 of his paper, Prof. Feringer quotes such well-known students of human learning as L. J. Cronbach, H. A. Murray, P. F. Lazarsfeld, S. Koch, E. C. Tolman and others to uphold the point that science has not yet offered much help to the teacher in the day-to-day effort of conducting learning through teaching. What Feringer and many others say is that trial, analysis, re-trial, re-analysis, and still more revision is probably your best bet.

Think of the students, of what they need to do—put yourself in their places—and go through the course, the lesson, the outside assignment, if there are any. Use your mind, your reason, your emotions in trying to motivate, to explain, to inspire. Accept suggestions, especially from your students. But never be entirely satisfied with yourself. Artists seldom are.

GUIDING AND COUNSELING THE MATURE STUDENT

Many teachers feel, regretably, that all they are to do in the teaching-learning experience is to provide information, to be a model for skills or attitudes, or train people to perform certain functions. If asked specifically about guidance and counseling functions, they may tell you that this is not their responsibility. Such people should be discouraged from continuing to deal with adult students, since there really should be no clean distinction made between "teaching" and the guidance and counseling functions. This obviously does not mean that teachers are expected to be amateur psychiatrists. It does mean that teachers of adults should take an active, sympathetic, intelligent interest in the lives of the people they work with.

We might pick up again with the matter of developing self-confidence in the student. In some cases, the teacher may feel that there really is no basis for self-confidence, but this in a very high percentage of cases would be a dangerous and damaging conclusion, even reached late in the course of instruction. Few of

us realize our own potentials, and the person who has not regularly nor recently been involved in organized, deliberate learning is certainly not likely to be operating at top capacity. Getting back into organized learning is more like warming up for a footrace than it is like a LeMans start for an automobile race.

STUDENTS HELPING THEMSELVES

One thing your students need to do for themselves is to construct a personal learning calendar. This is simply a way of getting people to look seriously at the responsibilities they have undertaken. It is a good idea for the person involved to take a real calendar, put it down on the desk and show the instructor what his commitments of time are for the month, week, or other period covered by the learning experience. The would-be learner who is going to cling to a Wednesday night bowling date, afternoon jogging, and all the other previous commitments is probably going to be in trouble pretty soon. There must be specific time blocked out for participating in the learning experience, for reading, for laboratory exercises if required, for contemplation, for preparing assignments. People who are not willing to do this elemental task for themselves are not likely to accomplish much as learners.

It sometimes is useful to discuss with a student, or with a group of students, their motivation for the learning experience. You may think you have heard all the possible explanations, but there are many surprises even in this kind of exercise. For example, one man candidly admitted that he valued the evening courses primarily as a means of escaping a few hours regularly from an overly talktive wife! Other people may not admit to the motivation of a need to escape loneliness, but it is obviously a factor. Some people need more income and see additional learning as a means toward it, and although this may not stroke the ego of the teacher as much as some other motivation, it may suffice to give the learning experience a kind of interest it might not have for the dilettante.

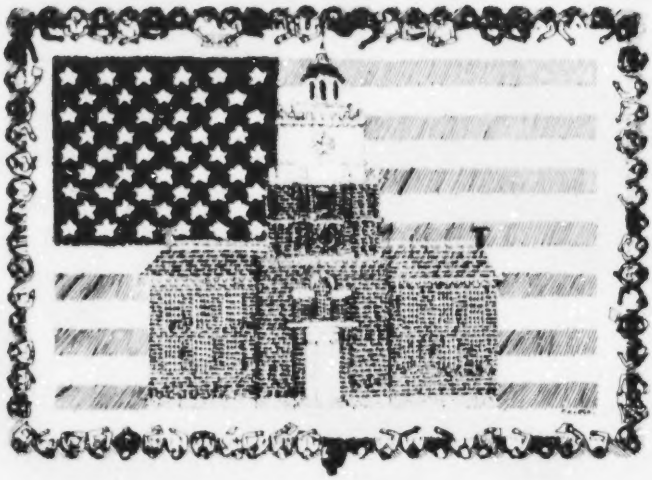
ADULT DEVELOPMENT

For many years conventional thought seemed to be that once adults reached whatever period was recognized as the beginning of adulthood, they were forever after in one common group with little or no differentiation. Even during the late thirties and afterward when a number of psychologists were beginning to chart with reasonable accuracy the general or typical developmental stages of children, there persisted a curious disinterest in believing that adults go through stages or "passages." By this time there is rather common acceptance of the belief that there are many stages of adulthood, some of them perhaps strikingly similar to the seven ages of man—at least those portions dealing with adulthood—that Shakespeare wrote about.[1] The year 1977 was marked by the publication of a book specifically for persons interested in the broad field of adult education, which in its title took cognizance of the need to understand the developmental characteristics of people: *Adult Development and Learning*, by Alan B. Knox.

As useful as Dr. Knox's book is, it is by no means encyclopedic nor final. He does emphasize that the term "developmental" is used to describe and provide some useful categories, but not necessarily to be used for making judgments about the states of development, nor a person's "timetable" in entering or leaving them. A watermark for adult education literature has always been the recognition and celebration of our individual distinctness, our differences, and the need to preserve those, even as the person pursues common bodies of knowledge and learns skills that many other people know and have developed. Generalizations about levels of development frequently focus on social interaction as a base mark. There are other writings about levels of development which generalize about human performance in certain skills, about human learning abilities, about body development and functions, about emotional and personality stability and characteristics,etc..

The use of generalization has certain benefits to sociologists, cultural anthropologists, social psychologists, and, of course, adult educators. At the same time all of these people and those practitioners who use training and adult behavioral changes to accomplish other ends must keep ever before them the fact that no person necessarily will go through all developmental stages in the same way and at the same rate as the norm, or as other persons one happens to know personally. In the matter of attitudinal maturation, some people have certain areas of their lives in which they remain playful and immature, perhaps by deliberate design, although in other things they are deadly serious and have figured out the world pretty effectively for their own purposes. Some

[1] "As You Like It," Scene 7, Act 2.



Freedom for today and tomorrow depends on shared information and power. Adult education is necessary to obtain these things.

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people take what is called a realistic attitude toward aging and the concession they must make toward it, while others lead apparently satisfactory, and in some cases, exciting lives while deliberately flouting the conventional regard for age that we are expected to exhibit. Some people are quite balanced in their family role performance, their community participation, their educational development, their work progress, and all other items. But some of our star performers, and notable winners of great awards, are notably deficient in many of these respects. Being an outstanding artist and achieving international recognition is no guarantee that the artist is going to be a stable family man, go to the PTA and town council meetings, or recognize the limitations on his energy and physical machinery. More than one industrialist and businessman has made a million or more dollars but has never gone very far beyond the adolescent stage emotionally, particularly in regard to people of the opposite sex.

Some adult educators feel that they hold a commission from Heaven, or some other source, to bring the whole world into balance. These people seem to have a high resistence to the shocks they receive when this never quite works out, and they insist on bending their own efforts and sometimes those of their colleagues in moving toward some self-recognized goal of the "well rounded person"—particularly for other persons. In program development for adults, this attempt to push people in directions they strongly

resist is often a guarantee of not only failure but a great deal of frustration and sometimes anger. The commitment of adult education in this country has been largely to *people as people*, believing that they have enough intelligence and good judgment to select what is best for them, and that in dealing with these adults, educators should limit their efforts to recommendations—not prescriptions.

CAN THEY LEARN?

Can adults learn? The answer is certainly affirmative. Obviously not all adults learn at the same rate nor in the same ways; neither do children and youth, for that matter. People are not old dogs to be taught new tricks, but even for people who exist on this out-dated cliche, it should be pointed out that old dogs simply may not be interested in learning new tricks, although they could learn them if they cared to. In this regard, the dedication of the second edition of *Adult Psychology* [1] by Ledford J. Bishof is illuminating; "Dedicated to Adulthood, where most of life is lived." Teachers of adults who do not feel they are dealing with people of stable learning ability and intelligence, teachers of people of greatly impaired reaction time and memory, or of low problem-solving abilities would do well to read what Dr. Bischof has to say about these matters. Also the level of creativity, the adaptive abilities of adults, and other aspects are well worth looking into. To all intents and purposes, the Thorndyke studies in the late twenties laid to rest any real concern about whether adults were capable of learning effectively, and therefore worthy of an educational system directed to their need. [2]

It would be foolish, of course, to pretend that adults are precisely like college-age youngsters. In some important ways they differ, but a little common sense and consideration will adjust for these differences. Many persons past forty-five years of age begin to find that their vision is not quite as acute as it was at twenty-five, and this may call for a more satisfactory lighting level in rooms where learning is to take place. Other adults suffer some hearing loss, and this needs to be compensated for by placing these people in advantageous positions, by monitoring the speed of conversation, by having appropriate levels of sound on video tapes, motion pictures, etc. Other adults may tire more readily, may be subject to illnesses that need to be planned for, and may have other physical impairments that condition, but do not negate, their interest in further learning. It may be very important for the teacher to find

[1] Harper & Row, Publishers, 1976

[2] Thorndike, Edward L., Adult Learning, Columbia University Press, New York, 1928.

out whether the student or learner has placed some mythical restrictions and limitations upon himself, and therefore, is really tying himself down so that real learning cannot take place. This is not uncommon and can be corrected with careful and sympathetic attention.

The instructor should realize what has previously been said; that adults, like all other persons, learn in different ways. Lecturing or lectures with discussions may be just fine for some people but for others they almost guarantee little, or very low, learning. On the other side of the scale, there is some evidence that a few older persons are somewhat arrogant about having lived the number of years they have, and want to put considerable emphasis on their many years of experience. Some of them, unfortunately, are in the position of the teacher who bragged of having twenty years of experience, only to be told by a knowledgeable critic that she really had one year of experience twenty times. Here a review of learning theories, or of instructional models, can be helpful. These writings are not perfect, but most of them will suggest proven methods which can be tried. The good teacher will recognize when something "works," and analysis of the situation will probably show why it did "work." A teaching log, or journal is useful, especially for the new teacher. As it is reviewed critically by the one who wrote it, and with a friendly expert teacher, many things will seem to be suddenly clear about what really happened to make a good learning situation.

REMEMBER

1. Good teaching is done by thinking first of how it affects the *learner*—not the teacher.
2. Learning is not controlled by teaching, or the teacher. Learning is *internal*—personal.
3. The reasons for testing and evaluating are to *insure learning*—to help the learner see himself, to reveal both gains and deficiencies. It also helps the teacher diagnose problems—his as well as those of the learners.
4. Adults as learners must be respected in a special way, because of their experiences, their insights. But *no learner* is to be treated casually, impersonally, or imperiously.
5. A search for the capabilities of adult students in any subject will often move them forward in other subjects.

PREPARING YOURSELF

Although most books dealing with the teaching of adults put emphasis on what must be done for, with, and to the student, perhaps the first person who should be considered is the teacher. There are all kinds of things to be done regarding your preparation before you begin dealing with the student.

It is usually taken for granted that the teacher is quite familiar with the content to be taught. Regretably, sometimes this is really not the case. Each of us has a certain amount of keeping up with the times to do although it obviously is much more acute in some fields of study than others. The history of American crafts is not likely to change a great deal, but at the same time there probably is more to that history than any one person knows. In addition, there are many ways of relating the history of crafts to the manners, morals, politics, economy, transportation, etc., of the times, more than may be known to any one person. A person may be training others in a relatively low-level skill and may disdain to try to learn anything further about what he is teaching or where that portion of the total enterprise fits into other things. This attitude will probably be picked up by the students very quickly, since the ability of people of all ages to detect disinterest, cynicism, and a mean mentality are amazing.

There are many important things about all kinds of training still undiscovered, and experimentation with alternative models seems very likely to be the best way to find them. The instructor who has done it all a thousand times before and who sees no other way to go at it, and frankly is not interested in trying, is not going to be the one to make those important discoveries. Part of your preparation for helping other people learn, therefore, consists of setting your attitude straight, developing a positive feeling about

what you are doing, and resolving to do it the very best it can be done. In plain American, the world has already over-filled its quota of soreheads, poor performers, and "wisenheimers" who know that nothing can be improved, that nobody will appreciate their trying their best, and that we are all going to Hell in a handbasket, anyhow!

Just as the student must arrange his own life schedule to accommodate the learning situation in which you and he are involved, so must you take into consideration your own priorities and commitments of time. If your acceptance of a teaching assignment puts considerable personal strain on you, the odds are not very much in your favor of your doing your best, nor of the situation being pleasurable. One man accepted a teaching assignment in the evening on top of his regularly busy day, not thinking about the fact that he had a forty-five minute drive to get to the class site. Dodging heavy traffic after work, wolfing down an early dinner, frantically getting his materials ready, and trying not to forget some important things, resulted in his conveying his frenetic state to the class. They felt concern that something about the whole situation was apparently not quite right, and he had a regular case of indigestion on class nights!

Much of teaching, the actual operational aspects of it, are things that some people would dismiss as "just plain common sense." True enough; remember, however, that good common sense is not all that common. Making advanced orders for instructional materials and equipment, for example, seems certainly common sense enough, but every instructional materials center will tell you plaintive stories of teachers who forget to order, or forget they have ordered, who come in at the last moment frantically asking someone to bail them out and thereby throwing the whole system out of sync. The experienced teacher will very likely carry a few sticks of chalk in a protective box in his attache case, knowing full well that if he wants to diagram or illustrate something on the chalk board, there just may not be any chalk available. And in order to use color to highlight a point, he can almost bet that the only colored chalk available will be that which he brings himself. The instructor who wants to seat twenty people in a circle in order to have eye-contact communication and discussion should plan to arrive early enough to enlist the first few students in helping set up the room, since chances are that seats will be arranged in military rows. Obtaining duplicate copies of materials for students—maps, formulae, instructions, etc.—should not wait until the deadline, since all sorts of emergencies arise in the duplicating room. All of these things will seem only too evident to the experienced teacher, but it is the rare person who doesn't get caught by one of them from time to time. All of these things are part of getting yourself ready for the experience.

TOWARD SATISFYING PRAXIS

After absorbing all the theories and good advice you can hold, there comes the time when you realize that you are on your own. If you are typical, there may be a slight feeling of tension in your tummy, a bit of dryness in the mouth, and even modest coronary palpitations. Relax! No one dies from all this, and after a time it fades, leaving you exhilarated and ready for whatever comes.

Some further tips from veterans of the experience will, however, be useful. One, which we often forget in spite of its simplicity, is to take the temperature of the group. Now I obviously don't mean the poking of thermometers into oral orifices, but rather making a judgment on whether the group is "together" in any discernible way; are they pleased to be there, indifferent, tired, curious, resentful, friendly, attentive, etc.? If you are an experienced teacher, you sense this "temperature" without consciously thinking about it, but until you are, be sure to do a 30-second analysis. The results may call for a change of your plans.

In some groups the instructor will find, often too late, that several members are blood relatives, or that there are members of rival factions looking for ways of discomforting their rivals. The innocent teacher may get into the position of apparently taking sides. A strict attention to the business of the class is imperative. A loose tongue is often "irremedial"!

You may have already decided on your role; you are to be the imparter of information, or the arouser of interest in a topic with the intention that the result will be searching by the students later on. You may intend to examine, to test early to see what the group knows, in order to diagnose more clearly what your task really is. You may have your own goals or objectives for the group learning experience, which you have carefully worked out in advance. You may anticipate high interest and strong motivation to learn something—what you can teach, perhaps. But do try to know what your students already know before you try to teach them.

The initial assessment, or temperature taking, may raise red flags, sound alarms, and stop your plans with a screeching of mental tires! It may, of course, confirm all your best plans and hopes.

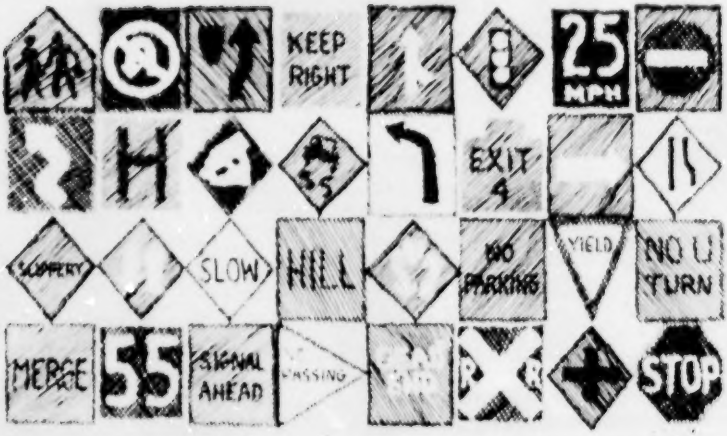
Even after you determine what the outcome of the teaching/learning experience should be, you should check to see that it is clear and agreed-upon by the group. It may be as simple as learning how to operate the new model GK-33T machine, but even there someone will want to know more and different things than you had anticipated. Of course, you can tell such people that

you aren't going to cover their interests, but that is always done at a price. If you make clear *in advance* that you are limited in what you can deal with (you may or may not make clear the reasons for the limitations, but usually it is much better to do so), you reduce the resentment of someone in the group who feels that you think his idea or questions really unimportant.

Another form of getting ready could be subsumed under the heading

KNOWING YOUR STUDENTS

It is important to know as much about your students as you can in regard to those aspects of their lives and personalities that relate to the learning experience in which you and they are engaged. Each one of us wears the clothes of his personal history and each one of us filters the experience and the reflections of reality through many different screens, most of them provided by his environment, but some obviously, and importantly, given him by his heredity. Men and women experience the world in different ways. It is trite to say this, but it is importantly true and needs greater recognition as a fact. Illustrations and examples that are very useful to women frequently don't communicate effectively to men, and vice versa. Examples, illustrations, and ways of dealing with content and problems which are quite comfortable for the urban black youth may not be appropriate to the rural white youth. Points of view, explanatory phrases, and the like which are quite satisfactory to the Puerto Rican living on the mainland would seem awkward and strange indeed to the Pennsylvania Dutch Mennonite. What all of this says to the teacher is that it is important to find out early who your group of would-be learners are, and then to review teaching materials with that knowledge in mind. Again, all of this could be dismissed as being quite obvious "stuff." No claim to the contrary is being made. It has been observed, however, by highly recognized thinkers that most of us need as much to be reminded as instructed—particularly in our mature years. For those who already "know" all this, it is offered as a reminder. Those whose experience has not already made these points will do well to consider them, in order to be recognized as successful teachers or guides to learning.



Are you giving the adult learner too many signals? Don't confuse learners!

THAT GOOD BEGINNING

It is natural and reasonable to want to have a good first impression with the learning group. It is quite common that students remember first impressions for a long time (although, of course, they can be changed) and it is also common for the group to share opinions and attitudes about the teacher or group leader. Someone said that class opinions are made in the lounge, the halls, and the "john." These impressions say something about what the student expects his relationships to be with the instructor. In some cases, due to the circumstances of the class, these relations are circumscribed and quite limited. The students in certain factories, military establishments, prisons, etc. are less likely to have out-of-class relations with the instructor than would be the case with classes on contemporary American fiction, advanced oil painting, or understanding the stockmarket. But regardless of whether there are associations between teacher and students outside the regular class meeting, there is a great deal within the class setting which will have its influence on learning, and these relations are indeed influenced by the beginning experience. Whether the instructor arrives early and introduces himself to each incoming student, or whether the instructor waits until the group is assembled and then comes in, can be of importance. If the instructor shakes hands with some students but not with others, this seemingly inconsequential act can have considerable consequence in certain situations. Whether the instructor tells the students what he prefers to be called, or leaves them to flounder about the matter, has consequences.

The clothes you wear influence to a degree what the students think of you and what they expect the class to be like. The expectations of the group may be important to know if this is possible. Of course, in some institutions dress is prescribed and any deviation from it is likely to be considered a matter of considerable consequence, both by the higher authorities of the institution and by the students. In such a situation, flouting the dress code by the instructor would be clearly a matter of concern. More casual dress is likely to suggest a more casual attitude toward personal relations and toward the subject and the way it is taught. It may, however make communication between students and instructor a bit easier.

If at all possible, look at yourself in a full-length mirror before going into the group. This is not vanity at work, but a final check for the tie askew, the hair not lying right, the unbuttoned, or the unzipped zipper. More importantly, it is you saying to yourself, "I am ready. I can do it—and do it well."

Many instructors, to the regret of many audiences, somehow feel obliged to attempt to be stand-up comedians, at least at the outset. This is a craft or art for which they are usually not trained and in which they very quickly show their ineptitude. Humor and friendliness are great, but to attempt to convey one's friendliness and wit by ill-selected or poorly given jokes and anecdotes is likely to result in something quite different from what the teacher wanted. The worst possible thing is to select and offer jokes, comments, etc., which are offensive to members of the group. Jokes based on ethnic, religious, or sexual grounds, or based on handicaps, give reason for genuine resentment. One final thought on the good beginning we all want; adult students can detect a "phony" a mile away. Don't try to "snow" the group. Unless you are immortal, there are going to be things about the subject you don't know and can't explain. Calmly admitting this is certainly no disgrace; trying to find whether some of the group themselves can help with such matters is likely to be well received, and in many cases is likely to bear good results.

In regard to planning the first session, it is certainly recommended that the teacher have plans well laid for the entire session, but be quite prepared to deviate from those plans if unforeseen conditions arise. One way to guarantee a poor first impression is to have made no alternative plans, and to insist on sticking with plans which obviously can't be successfully carried off, and which only alienate the group.

WAYS OF TEACHING—WAYS OF LEARNING

In those early days of World War II when many Americans were tense and worried (indeed, with good cause), the various branches of the armed services and industry were thrown willy-nilly into various kinds of teaching. The military had to teach an army of civilians to be soldiers, sailors, and airmen. Industry had to teach many people, including considerable numbers of women with no related experience, how to turn out the machines, munitions, and other supplies of war. In order to get on with the work in a kind of no-nonsense way, with no time to argue and debate theory, many direct methods were turned to and many of them succeeded. They did not necessarily succeed because they were the best possible methods for that time or any other time, but because everybody realized that it behooved us to do our best to get the situation in hand, since the alternative consequences of defeat seemed completely unacceptable. One of the boiled-down instructional methods programs was called job instruction training, and resulted in a little three-by-five-inch card which the newly-anointed instructor could carry in his pocket and refer to from time to time. The little blue JIT[1] cards in essence told the instructor the tell the new learner what he was to learn, to demonstrate what was to be learned, and to have the learner try to demonstrate that he had indeed acquired the information or skill that had been offered.

Later trainers and teachers have attempted to reduce the whole process to three or four steps, which usually include:

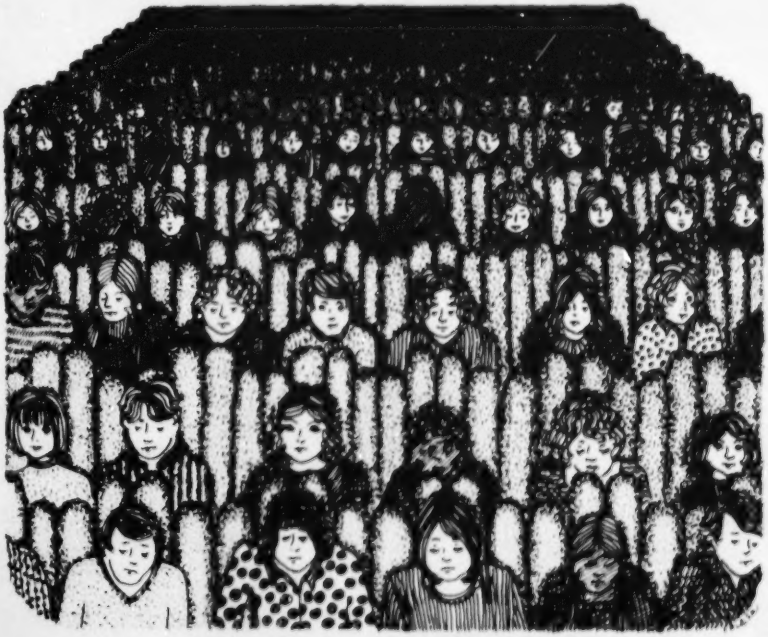
I. Prepare the learner (put the learner at ease, tell him what he is to learn, check him for previous knowledge of the content, and try to prepare him psychologically for the experience).

II. Perform the teaching act (tell, demonstrate, illustrate, go one step at a time and check to see that everyone masters it, keep tying back into what the learner has already gained, don't "overload the circuits", and summarize at major stages as they are concluded).

III. Have the learner demonstrate what he has learned. (Can he demonstrate the skill, give the right responses to the key questions? Check for understanding as well as for "right answers"; repeat and look for new ways of illustrating cloudy points.).

IV. Follow through. (Can the learner explain the job to somebody else, demonstrate his skills and knowledge to someone else? Can he put the content in his own vocabulary without doing violence to it? Have him continue his right responses until they are a part of his regular mental equipment.)

[1] Job Instruction Training



Somnolent students at a soporific lecture. Do you put students to sleep?

Many people who teach successfully cannot recite the names of leading educational psychologists nor remember the major research which would seem to underlie what these successful teachers do. They may not be at all acquainted with philosophers whose work would support what these teachers accomplish. These teachers have synthesized a pattern of belief, understanding, and behavior for themselves out of all their own life experiences. This may at some time have included courses in educational psychology, learning theory, philosophy of education, and the like but their need in the classroom situation or other learning design is not for those things. Their immediate need is to do something in relation to a group of people who want to learn. They would agree with Professor Cyril O. Houle who contends that adult education is cooperative rather than operative, that it is essentially an art rather than a science, and that it is to increase skill or ability, knowledge or information, and/or sensitivity. These ideas have been expressed by Dr. Houle in the *Design of Education*,[1] page 227, as well as in other writings and speeches.

[1] Houle, Cyril O., *Design of Education*, Jossey-Bass, Inc. Publishers, San Francisco, 1972.

YOUR LOG

No, let's not repeat that old and rather stupid saying about Mark Hopkins at one end of a log and a student at the other as the best way of teaching. Logs usually are dashedly uncomfortable to sit on, and have ants in them; besides all that, Hopkins was not a very good teacher! But for the progressive-minded teacher or group leader, a log or journal is very useful. If you don't really care whether you grow in your profession or not, then forget it now. But a daily recording of how things went in your class will prove to be very useful, at least for the early months or even years of your teaching.

What goes into the log? You decide. Think over the class or group backgrounds, their records such as you have. What were their questions which might reveal lack of understanding, or personal problems with the course? What was actually talked about? It may or may not have matched closely what your lesson plan called for. Who did most of the talking today? You? If so, perhaps you may wish to revise the script for tomorrow. After a few quizzes, match the scores with the amount of class participation. Are the big talkers getting the high grades? Some teachers find that they are very much "on the wave length" of some students, or very empathic, and are in some danger of forgetting the rest of the class and its needs.

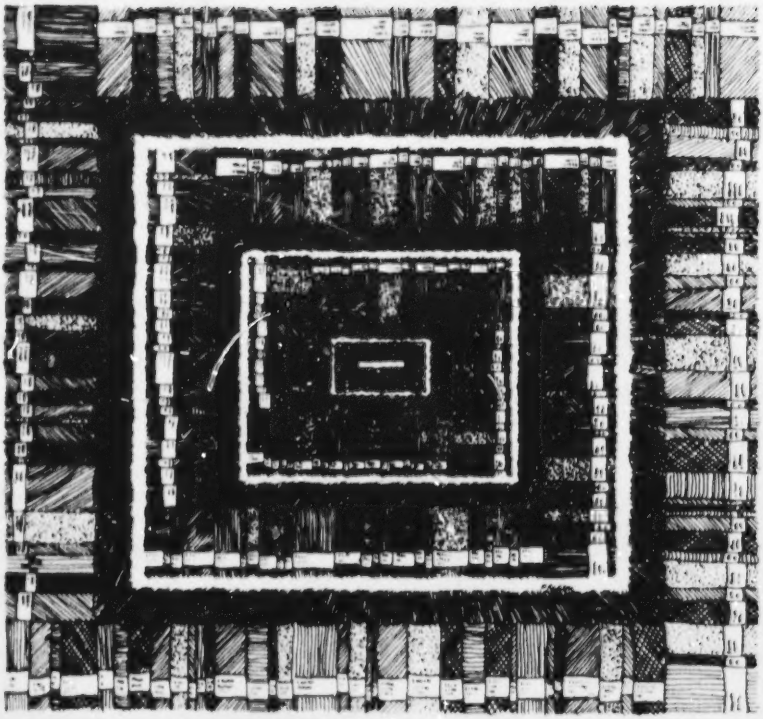
Some teachers have found that it is useful to have the students work out questions which, if many, give a very comprehensive examination over the entire course. The quality of the question is evaluated, sometimes by submitting it to the class, perhaps with no name attached, and having the class decide if the question is suitable for an examination. Teaching students how to ask good questions may be as valuable as anything else you can do for them. In order to ask good questions, of course, one must know the subject under discussion, and also organize well, have a logical way of thinking, and see what is most important in the subject.

CLASSES OF LEARNING SITUATIONS

This booklet is designed primarily for the teacher-directed learning situation. It should be kept in mind, however, that there are other learning situations which can be combined with the teacher-directed situation for the benefit of the learner.

INDEPENDENT STUDY

It might seem obvious to some people that independent study



Ideas don't spoil when stored in books, but they work best when fermenting in heads. You must be able to read well to have a rich life.

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requires no teacher other than the student himself.[1] He selects what he wants to learn and proceeds to find ways of doing just that. Actually a very few of us learn without there having been some other persons making provisions for our learning in a more satisfactory manner.

Dr. Alan Tough, Department of Adult Education, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, in a paper entitled "Major Learning Efforts: Recent Research and Future Directions," copyrighted in 1977, said that self-planned study accounts for 73 percent of all adult learning in the U.S.A.! Group study led by professionals (you and I) accounts for only 10 percent and group study led by peers, only 4 percent.

[1] This is not entirely accurate, since the person who drew a diagram, constructed a model, or wrote a handbook or set of instructions was trying to teach.

These adults (millions) are usually not trained teachers, but they usually do teach successfully; they teach themselves. Dr. Tough and other researchers have found similar self-teaching in several continents, so this is a cross-cultural phenomenon.

CORRESPONDENCE STUDY

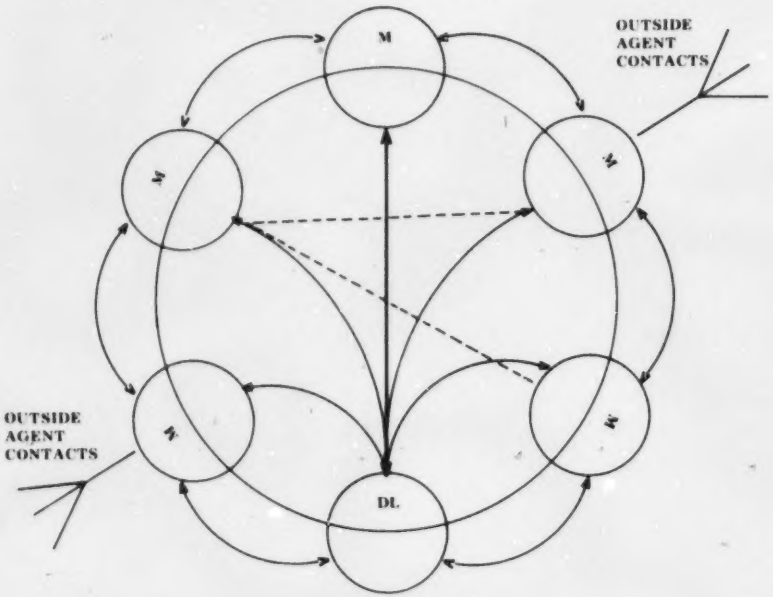
Correspondence study, which dates back over one hundred years and which apparently began in a large formal way in Berlin in the teaching of French and German, actually has teachers involved with students. The preparation of courses and individual assignments, and the grading of student papers or other responses by correspondence involves a special kind of teaching. In most cases, students and teachers never meet in a physical way although through correspondence they have an intellectual exchange. In some cases audio tapes are exchanged and the students and teacher take one step closer together, namely that of hearing each others' voices. This kind of teaching has special conditions of its own and needs to be dealt with in a somewhat different manner from what this book contemplates. Sufficient to say, the same rules for organizing content, for moving the learner from one successful experience to a sequential one, for repeating things often enough to become fixed in the mind, for giving quick response to tests, and a host of other things apply here just as in other, face-to-face situations. Usually the institution providing the correspondence study has persons especially trained to help teachers prepare the materials for instruction. The teacher works under the rules of the organization.

TUTORING

Tutorial teaching is a category under which some people feel correspondence or distance learning should fall. It was estimated some years ago that more than one and one-half million American adults studied annually with tutors.[1] This form of instruction has historically respectable antecedents, going back at least to Plato whose method of direct questioning and argumentation brought out his own ideas through the words of the student, and presumably resulted in greater understanding on the part of the student who was "discovering" the truth about certain matters. Many persons who have succeeded in such different learning tasks as mastering trigonometry and tennis give great credit to their tutors or coaches. Tutoring when successfully done and in the full range of situations requires much more than simply transmitting information verbally or in other form. In some cases educational

[1] W. C. Johnstone and R. J. Rivera, *Volunteers for Learning* pages 53-57 (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company 1965).

Group interaction in typical, informal adult learning group situation. There are many sources of information—many "inputs." Group members share, question, respond. Summation, as well as introduction and direction, are the responsibility of the Designated Leader.



DL = Designated Leader (teacher, etc.) M = Member (of learning group)

NOTE: Lines of interaction do not flow only from group members to the DL and back; they go many ways. The locus of true leadership shifts continually, although the DL has responsibility for some order and direction.

- - - - - - - - - - - - Dashed lines typical of intra-group exchanges; apply to all members.
OUTSIDE AGENT CONTACTS: may be TV, radio, newspaper, magazine, libraries, friends, workmates, exhibits, etc.

play is involved so that the learner finds a real purpose of the exercise in a more stimulating and involving manner. In some instances the tutor puts the learner into a situation which represents a problem to be solved, and stands by to see how the student deals with the situation. He may correct the student each time he follows a wrong lead, or he may let the student thrash about and come to whatever conclusion he can. Usually the next step is mutual analysis of the situation which has just occurred.

LEARNING IN GROUPS

Much of the important learning we do, particularly that which is organized and deliberate, is done with other persons. Our most common form of learning situation in the schools and colleges is the class in which groups ranging from some ten to four hundred are expected to learn simultaneously, usually with one instructor but sometimes with a team operating together.

Under "groups" we should probably distinguish between those in which the people respond to the instructor separately from each other (the most common situation), and groups in which the members respond to each other as well as to the person in charge. This latter kind of learning group is more commonly associated with "progressive" schools rather than traditional; it is also more commonly found in adult education than in the education of childred and youth. In the teaching of adults, it is not at all unusual for the true leadership to shift within the group from time to time, not always residing in the designated leader or teacher. The successful teacher of adults of course must be aware that this is likely to happen, and in many situations should happen for the best results, and preparation should accordingly be made.

VOLUNTARY GROUPS

Many voluntary groups have educational programs in which some of the function of the teacher, particularly the planning function, is vested in one of the members. The actual teaching is commonly done by persons from outside the group who are brought in for special purposes. The fact that the group member charged with the educational program does not include specific teaching functions such as presenting material, examining learners, counseling them, etc., does not mean that there are no important things which this person contributes to the learning possibilities of the other members. The part that the volunteer group member plays in helping select topics is frequently crucial, and skill and care based on accurate information of the needs and interest of the group can make the difference between success and failure of the program. Facilitating the learning activities of the group and the outside

instructor is also important. Many of us have suffered through sessions in which a major part of the presentation was based on the showing of the film, the playing of a tape, or the projection of slides but with no success because the proper equipment was not anticipated and provided. Many sessions have been spoiled because the group meeting was in a location where another, and noisy, group was housed next door. Taking care of details of this kind can be dismissed as petty business, but the success of major business very often depends on taking care of little things in their proper sequence.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

The interest in and need for programs comes from varied sources. Sometimes a person feels a desire to teach a skill or information or feelings about something which is personal to him or her. This is entirely reasonable and in many cases appropriate, and accounts for some of the best teaching done anywhere. The real amateur (the word comes from the Latin *amo*, meaning "I love") usually is willing to devote much more time to the development of a program than is someone who is merely a mercenary. All of us with years of experience in adult education can witness to this fact, and it is significant to note that the one characteristic included in virtually all descriptions of outstanding teachers, and ranked very high by learners, is the matter of enthusiasm. Incidentally, in using the word "program" I am being purposefully vague so that it can mean a single presentation or a series of presentations constituting a course, or a series of courses leading to some specific outcome, such as a diploma or certificate. Meaning for the word is usually clear, determined by the usage.

Another potential source of programs is the condition created by major social, economic, or natural occurrences which affect many lives. An example of this could be an extreme drought, student activities such as occurred in the 1960s, seasonal holidays, conversion to the metric system, etc. In these instances there usually develops a consensus which almost demands that something be done, but of course does not specify just what it is. It is here that the specifics of program development and design by the teacher come to the front.

MORE ON METHODS

Usually when there is a discussion of methods of teaching adults we find that the person discussing the matter is thinking of one method, for most, if not all of the people concerned. Usually in one class or one learning group a single method is offered to the students. Most teachers will say, if asked directly, that they believe that people learn in different ways, at different rates, and learn better under some physical conditions than others. At the same time many teachers seem to ignore this in the practices of adult education.

Look at the following chart. Any of the six types of situations may require different andragogical treatment; in fact, several methods may be needed in each type.

ADULT EDUCATION

Open, noncompetitive, nonselective (or self-selective) activities and services, depending solely on interest of participants for choice of what will be done, listened to, read, or studied; little formal structure in course format; little or no certification of achievement; immediate satisfaction from participation and/or immediate perception of usefulness of content. Haven of the autodidact.

Type A: Services which provide a broad range of informational and educational media from which people select according to their interests; although there may be structured services linked to other educational programs, most cater to serving a broad spectrum of individual interests.

Examples: Television, radio, magazines, newspapers, libraries, bookstores, news stands, information centers, etc.

Type B: Participant-governed groups in which people elect to join in activities with others of similar interests; programs often include seminars, courses, and speakers, but such formal activities are secondary to the basic goals of the group.

Examples: Women's organizations, political clubs and organizations, social groups and clubs, service clubs and

organizations (Rotary, etc.), labor, or cooperative organizations, religious groups, and institutions

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Type C: Loosely structured educational services which seek to find and influence people with a fairly prescriptive message and content; people can elect to listen or participate if they wish; often seek to encourage groups in Type E to assist in spreading the message.

Examples: Agricultural extension, health education services, land-reform education programs, community-development education, on-the-job training schemes, population education, environmental education

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Type D: Moderately structured educational activities and institutions usually consisting of formal courses and seminars directed toward prescriptive learning goals.

Examples: Community centers, self-learning centers, work-study schemes, correspondence education, "university-without-walls" or open university, teachers' centers, armed forces training, career education, farmer training, adult basic education, or functional literacy.

Type E: Highly structured and prescriptive educational activities with long-term goals, but involving a degree of flexibility in structure and program.

Examples: Nontraditional and external degree programs, credit for life, experiential education coupled with degree programs

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Type F: Highly structured and rigid educational programs and structures with a highly prescriptive content.

Examples: Traditionally structured technical and higher education institutions, including seminaries and officer candidate schools (military)

Closed, selective, competitive services, depending primarily on

standards set by the authority as to who should (or be allowed to) study or do what at what ages; usually structured in the form of courses, with recognized certification of attainment; little immediately perceived usefulness of content, deferred satisfaction, and acceptance of long-term goals.

You may work anywhere on this continuum except the first (independent study) level.
Most of you will be nearer the bottom part then the top.

In many instances there seems to be no choice; the training director assigns a room, the learning must take place where the equipment is, the community service room in a department store or library is available only at a certain time and therefore the group must use these facilities with the conditions that prevail. One of the conditions that does prevail is the methods imposed by the instructor. We have already been thinking together about ways in which a person responsible for the class or learning group can alter what seems to be inflexible situations, and perhaps it is wise to emphasize this issue once more. First of all, it is not always true that the assigned meeting space *is* the only possible choice. People who accept what is given them without exploring other possibilities certainly get nothing else, and their groups frequently suffer because of this lack of spirit and initiative. If the offered space proves to be the only thing possible, most instructors usually feel that they can do nothing about the given space. Sometimes, however, a few decorative touches added by the instructor before the meeting, or after discussion by the group with their participation, can greatly change the appearance of the meeting space and can result in greatly improved spirits and attitudes of the group. Murals can be applied directly to the walls in some cases, or temporary murals made on paper or cloth can help a great deal. Pictures can be hung in many cases with very little effort. Plants and flowers can be brought in, in some instances.

Many instructors, no different from many other adults, are often afraid to make any change. They are afraid of being different, particularly when they can't explain the reasons for wanting to be different.

Many years ago it was discovered in military establishments and industries through repeated experiments that people misjudged the weight of equipment and other things they had to carry if the things were painted either light pastel colors or dark drab colors. They consistently judged the light-colored objects to be lighter in weight than the identical darker objects. It was also discovered long ago that dark, drab walls and dirty windows affect morale of

both workers and learners. The teacher may protest that clean windows and brightly painted walls are not provided, and may add with emphasis (sometimes profane) that he is not a window washer nor wall scrubber nor painter. So be it. The person who doesn't want to put himself out to help other people usually cannot be forced to, and has to be tolerated, but the exceptional teacher is known by his contribution and those who go out of their way to help others are known and usually rewarded.

At this point there should be a protest from some readers to the point that this portion was supposed to deal with instructional methods and here we are rattling along about the conditions of the meeting space. It just happens that in the author's judgment, all of this can properly be subsumed under the heading "Method." The way in which you do something, or do nothing, about the meeting space is part of your personal method.

PROBLEM SOLVING

Much of adult life requires dealing with conditions which are often called problems. Tools supplied are not proper to do the job; schedules posted are impossible to meet; requirements for dealing with material in a learning situation are exaggerated; the money available is not enough, etc. People store information about things they feel are important, thinking quite properly that they will have to remember it some day and apply it to a situation. This is the basis for an important kind of learning and, of course, teaching. Many years ago in teaching about law, professors developed cases, sometimes hypothetical and sometimes edited reality. Students were asked to discuss the appropriate points of law needed to deal with the situations. This gave the professor a chance to see what information the student had, how well it was remembered, how well he could find other information relevant to the case, how he made judgments about what was important along with other aspects which revealed his potential as a lawyer. This method has been borrowed by other disciplines and used broadly. Military people are given hypothetical sets or cases to work out frequently, first on paper, then with three-dimensional scaled-down models, and finally in the field. All of these things bear on the solving of problems. There is no reason why some learning groups cannot be divided into two relatively equal sections, and each one develop a case to be studied and dealt with by the other. In this way the instructor has a double opportunity to see the groups at work, to judge thought processes, attitudes of cooperation, skill at putting material together, conceptual and verbal abilities, etc.

Problem solving in such fields as automechanics, electrical wiring, and other vocational work may consist of things being connected

wrong, parts left out, or faulty parts put into the system. The learner should then be required to perform his analysis of the situation, his testing, his detective skills, and his remedial treatment. Persons who wish to study this matter in detail will find a number of references, one of which is Gagne, whose book *The Conditions of Learning* was published in a revised edition in 1972.[1]

Gagne develops cognitive learning in a hierarchical order from the "signal" through to the problem-solving action. For a review in relatively concise and understandable form of adult learning, chapter seven in Knox's book *Adult Development and Learning* is recommended.[2]

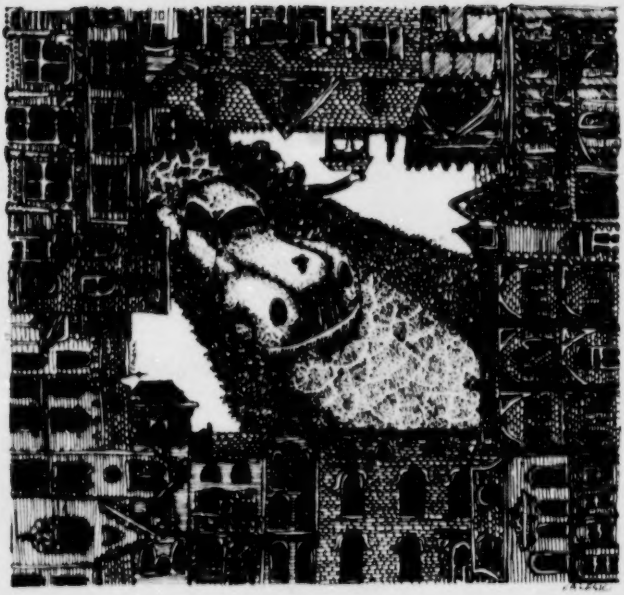
FALSE FACES

Part of each teacher's method is his selection of a false face or mask. The Swiss psychologist Carl G. Jung discussed the development of a person as a separate individual in terms of the mask or false face which the person wore in different situations, and what he believed to be his own face underneath it. This matter of face is of supreme consequence in Occidental and Oriental psychology, and "losing face" is for many people such a disaster that only suicide can follow it. The Latin word "persona" literally means mask or false face, and we become persons in different situations according to the mask we wear, as Roman actors wore masks through which they spoke or "sounded" their lines (per-sonare). If a person selects a mask which his society rejects as inappropriate, he is frequently ridiculed or persecuted. Part of your method, then, as a teacher consists in finding an appropriate and comfortable mask to use in your "acting your part."

Some of us think of ourselves as teachers sitting in high places with our disciples or students sitting at our feet, as Saul of Tarsus sat at the feet of the great teacher Gamaliel. The person who feels this way will have a mask of dignified appearance, probably no humor, and will use a measured cadence of speech, deliberate actions, etc. This is all part of his method. Another teacher of adults may consider himself one of a group of people trying to grow in company of each other, will really consider himself one of the group and a leader and facilitator in no way really different from, nor better than, the others. He may select a mask that reflects comradeship, easy access bordering on familiarity, friendliness, smiling, one of the gang. A mask may include more than the face, and this instructor or teacher will probably dress no differently from the group, or even more casually than the rest of the group, whereas,

[1] Gagne, R. M., New York: Hold, Rinehart and Winston.

[2] Op sit p. 405



"Mankind has become so much one family that we cannot insure our own prosperity except by insuring that of everyone else. If you wish to be happy yourself, you must resign yourself to seeing others also happy." Bertrand Russell

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our contemporary Gamaliel will undoubtedly dress more formally and probably in dark colors. In all of these matters, it is of course wise to consider the expectations of the group concerning your appearance and behavior, but beware of catering to what you believe to be the expectancies of the group if they come at the cost of your being untrue to your own self-image. If you disrupt your method so much that you are uncomfortable in the mask you are wearing, the chances of your doing an effective job are considerably reduced.

It seems obvious, therefore, that the face you wear must be your own, and in that sense not a *false* face; it is a true face—your own.

METHODS: DIFFERENCES FOR ADULTS

By this time we have hinted at a large body of research which says, to this reader at least, that we need to consider adults in some ways differently from the way we consider children in their learning and our teaching, but that in other and important ways we should make no differences. It should of course be obvious that a small book can

not begin to deal with the total subject of adult learning, nor with stages of adult development, nor completely with means of instruction, tools, techniques, and strategies. The most that can be done is to cause readers to ask questions of themselves, to resolve to reexamine issues, and to be willing to risk taking a tumble in trying something different. If any of these things are achieved, at least the author will be satisfied.

One of those important ways in which all learners, regardless of age, should be treated the same has to do with respect for them as people. Some people seem to feel that they can bully or abuse a smaller person, regardless of that person's age. Other people want to put on the mask of authority when they are designated "teacher" and throw their weight around among the learners who presumably are of less importance, or because presumably, they have less knowledge about the given subject at hand. Those persons whose methods for teaching adults include giving the adults an opportunity to help themselves and each other, probably experience more satisfaction and better results than others.

TESTING, EXAMINING, EVALUATING

It is both natural and desirable for all persons in a learning group or class, including the leader or teacher, to ask questions about what they are doing and how well they are doing it. Students and teacher alike should ask, "what am I learning?"; "how firmly is this learning fixed in my mind or muscular patterns, and am I likely to forget it quickly?"; "what are the disturbing or dissatisfying aspects of the situation, if any, and what is causing them?"; etc. Some organizations require a rather structured and formal testing and examining procedure, complete with detailed and sometimes lengthy reports to persons in charge. In other learning situations formal testing is specifically forbidden, since it is believed to be undesirable. Each person is usually expected to assess what is happening to himself and the group, although even this kind of assessment sometimes is not reported. Adult education of all kinds represents an amazing variety of situations offered to very diverse audiences representing a wide range of ages, social and economic level, lifestyles, education levels, and cultural backgrounds. Since the audience for adult education and the forms it takes are both complex and varied, diversified means of inquiring into change (testing, examination, and evaluation) are obviously required. Frequently persons responsible for programs and systems are concerned about whether they are doing what they are charged with doing. They are concerned with the efficiency of what they are doing, as well as with the effectiveness. (In two years a person may effectively learn to drive an automobile, for example, but all things considered it would be much more *efficient* if he learned to drive the automobile in two months.)

The entire field of adult education probably has had more emphasis on "consumer evaluation" as the ultimate than has other forms of education. Since the most common adult learning situation is voluntary for the learner, dissatisfaction is expressed by non-participation; the adults "vote with their feet." There is, however, an increasing amount of the total adult education effort that finds the learner participating under some form of threat of penalty for non-participation. For these situations, some other means of judgment is desirable rather than opting out.

Those teachers who rely on student reporting of satisfaction should be prepared to find a certain amount of "politeness" in which the learner is telling the teacher what he thinks a teacher wants to hear. Even those systems which guarantee anonymity for the student do not always get candid reporting by students. Two conditions account for this; (1) our ingrained respect for authority; and (2) our reluctance to say unpleasant things under any conditions. There are, to be sure, some unbalanced people who will vent their personal misery on the teacher if anonymity is provided.

There is a considerable body of theory among educational psychologists that suggests testing the learner shortly after he attempts to learn. Rapid feedback to the person tested is a desirable general practice. It is suggested that if the testing does not follow rather quickly the attempt at learning, there is no real guarantee that the results differentiate between something learned from the teaching, or learned from other sources. In some situations, of course, the student is highly unlikely to have learned the material except through the direct teaching/learning effort; the military man is not likely to learn how to load and fire a howitzer from watching public television. There is some controversy as to whether it is desirable to allow members of the group to know how each other did on a given exercise or learning assignment. It is the view of some writers that learning is a competition internal to one's self, and such tension is really normal and desirable. But forcing people to "lose the prize" if they do less well than others usually means that they do not want more of such affairs.

When the teacher has an option to choose to use competition of one student against another, or something else, considerable thought should be given to the effects of that competition on each person concerned, both at the time and later. The content of the learning situation may itself suggest the answer; a coach of mile runners probably knows that his "students" will perform against other runners, and all against the clock. The student of creative writing only remotely competes. Does the *teacher* compete? Perhaps, where there are several teachers with similar groups of students, all supposedly with the same courses. Most teachers, however,

compete with their ideals of what they would be if they reached their own highest standards.

WHERE IS THE TEACHER COMING FROM? AND GOING?

In the middle of the decade of the 1970s a phrase came into being which was widely used to inquire about peoples' intellectual position on a matter. "Where are you coming from?" was frequently asked when someone's position was not clear. "So you'll know where I'm coming from, let me tell you about...." In all of this talk about where someone was coming *from*, it was frequently not equally clear where the person was going *to*! If this grammatical construction can be forgiven, the sense of the expression remains that more is needed to determine a person's intention than a knowledge of his background. In his novel *The Plague*, Albert Camus makes clear that the "plague" represents evasion and indifference. It is easy for teachers, trainers, and instructors to become infected. That is of course, equally true for adult students, although by their very act of involvement in a learning situation they probably indicate a higher degree of immunity to this plague of indifference and evasion than most other adults. The teacher is like one of the characters, a Dr. Rieux who struggles against the plague. Even with a full knowledge that his medical skills are not sufficient to stop the epidemic and heal the people, the doctor continues his struggle because he is committed to a way of life which involves compassion for other people. He and his associates refuse to become passive victims of this terrible scourge. The committee teacher, the one who knows not only where he is "coming from" but also knows the direction that he is going, is also consciously fighting against a terrible plague—ignorance. Such teachers remain whole persons out of perhaps, common decency, and out of their strength which comes from a commitment to other people who are presumably (and in most cases actually) less knowledgeable than themselves, and therefore less fortunate than themselves. These teachers take responsibility for themselves and partial responsibility for those who would learn under their care. (No one can, of course, take full responsibility for a learner.) These teachers survive and move beyond being victims so long as they live because of this strength. In his book *Reconstruction in Philosophy*, John Dewey sets out this idea of responsibility and clear-eyed viewing of the future, rather than complete and somewhat helpless reliance on the past for guidance

> ...reason is experimental intelligence, conceived after the pattern of science, and used in the creation of social parts; it has something to do. It liberates man from the bondage of the past, due to ignorance and accident hardened into custom. It projects a better future and assists man in its realization. And its operation is always subject to

test inexperience...intelligence is not something possessed once and for all. It is in constant process of forming, and its retention requires constant alertness in observing consequences, an open-minded will to learn, and courage in readjustment.

Dewey, John. *Reconstruction and Philosophy*, Boston: Beacon Press, 1948, p 96.

Lest anyone get the idea that John Dewey had come up with something entirely original and out of step with the American tradition, we might cite a precedent for this kind of thinking and this kind of reliance on human intelligence for our own welfare and satisfaction. Benjamin Franklin, as early as 1728 organized a private club in Philadelphia which came to be called the Junto. Mr. Franklin was always an advocate of self-education and what he wrote about the club indicates this:

I had form'd most of my ingenious acquaintance into a club of mutual improvement, which we called the Junto;* we met on Friday evenings. The rules that I drew up required that every member, in his turn, should produce one or more queries on any point of Morals, Politics, or Natural Philosophy, to be discussed by the Company; and once in three months produce and read an essay of his own writing, on any subject he pleased. Our debates were to be under the direction of a president, and to be conducted in the sincere spirit of inquiry after truth, without fondness for dispute, or desire for victory; and, to prevent warmth, all expressions of positiveness in opinions, or direct contradiction, were after some time made contraband, and prohibited under small pecuniary penalties.

Franklin, Benjamin. The *Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin*, New York, Random House 1932, p. 64.

This is obviously where adult education in the United States is coming from—from the necessity of relying on one's self and one's neighbors, the willingness to act without orders from above. We early showed appreciation of better ways of doing things, and a great sense of morality and truth—this in spite of a contemporary and ever-present willingness to boast and to exaggerate the powers and merits of one's self and one's country. In adult education we are coming from a position where knowledge has been greatly valued for many many years. In 1826, the secretary of the Massachusetts Scientific Library Association, Edward Brooks,

*From Spanish, meaning "together or joined," from Latin *jungere*—to join.

entered a strong plea for additional books dealing with science, engineering, and mechanical subjects, "exact and practical knowledge," and other books useful to people engaged in the building of a new nation on a large and relatively unexplored continent. *The American Journal of Education*, Volume 1, 1826, carried an appeal for the founding of an organization with the proposed name "Associations of Adults for Mutual Education". The person voicing the idea was Josiah Holbrook of Derby, Connecticut. Holbrook was a traveling lecturer on minerals and geology and to his lasting renoun founded the American Lyceum in November 1826, in Milburry, Massachusetts. The Lyceum is a legitimate part of our background in adult education. These organizations held weekly, or bi-weekly, or monthly meetings specifically for reading, conversation, discussion, illustration of the sciences, and other exercises designed for their mutual benefit. Very frequently the local chapters started the development of museums and libraries. They frequently collected things for the natural sciences including minerals, plants, stuffed animals, and other items useful in illustrating principles which were read about. In 1893 there were between four thousand and five thousand Lyceums in the country, and this in a time of virtually no mass communication other than newspapers with relatively limited circulation.

One final illustration of where we are coming from as adult educators—the Chautauqua.

The Chautauqua is as American as Sitting Bull, Gettysburg, or basketball. It was founded by a clergyman, the Reverend John H. Vincent of Plainfield, New Jersey, and Lewis Miller, an inventor and businessman from Akron, Ohio, and also like Mr. Vincent, a Methodist leader.

These two men expressed their concern for the level of training of teachers in Sunday Schools and, with the approval of the Methodist-Episcopal church, established an assembly in August 1874, at Fair Point on Chautauqua Lake in New York. Between five hundred and six hundred students attended that first two-week study program. From this beginning the organization grew into a large national group with reading circles, young peoples' unions, many social club off-shoots, and the awarding of collegiate degrees. They produced many publications, books, and periodicals for varied audiences. Later this movement spread into Japan, South Africa, Russia, and other locations. This was truly an open university—a peoples' college where the only entrance requirement was sincere interest. There were many opportunities for persons who did not make the right choice the first time, and many persons who later went on to mature study found their first

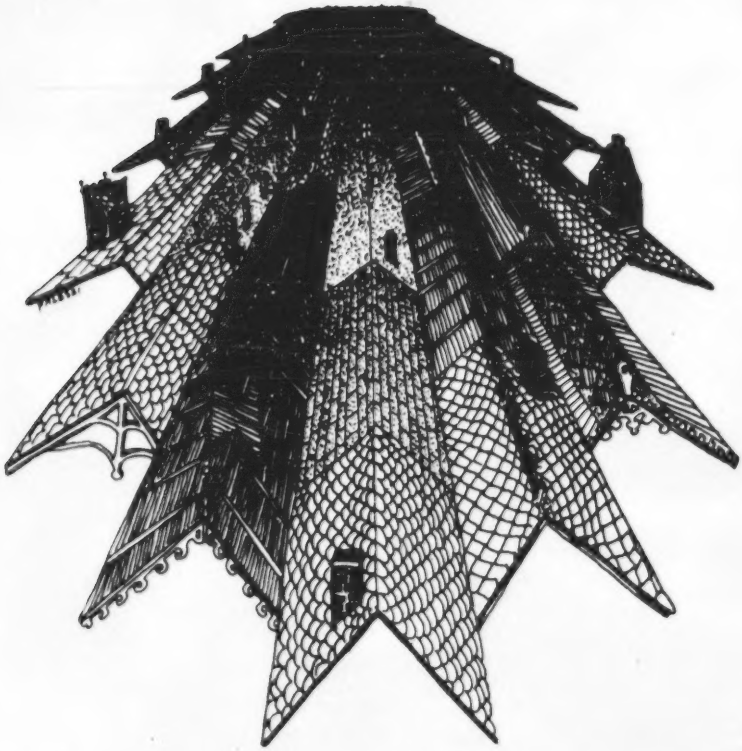
taste of it through a Chautauqua. The movement had its influence on the founding of the University of Chicago, the university extension movement, and correspondence study in general.

This is, then, where you are coming from. You, the teacher of adults, together with the persons who come to learn and the persons who administer programs have control of where we are heading. If we ultimately realize a much higher degree of citizen participation in popular government with an intelligent base of thought and information, it will be only through expanded adult education. Some of us will have the opportunity of contributing only small amounts to that total, ultimate goal, but each part must be in place before the mosaic is done. Teachers cannot be sure of the total net effect of their influence, and therefore should have great reason for doing it as well as is possible.

A MELANGE: METHODS, MATERIALS, TOOLS FOR THE TEACHER

At the small risk of some repetition, it will be useful to review some of the things which many of us already know, or believe we know about methods of teaching, materials for teaching, and instructional devices which are tools for teachers. Doubtless some readers will dismiss parts of this section with the thought "that's not new—I've used that for years." Let me urge that you give further consideration to those things that you have known for years, since neither newness nor familiarity can be considered a satisfactory reason for accepting or rejecting something where adult learning is concerned. Modern technology has indeed produced some marvelous electro-mechanical devices which can be used in some cases to advance learning remarkably. The computer in itself has produced some significant changes in the total educational picture, although it is by no means an ultimate tool, nor for many of our teaching and learning needs, a satisfactory tool. It is nevertheless a powerful tool and must be considered wherever it is available. The contemporary machines for reproducing pictures, graphs, maps, and nonverbal symbolic materials can be tremendously helpful to the teacher and the learner, and again must be considered by the serious teacher at every turn.

For decades, persons in teacher preparation have emphasized that the more senses involved in most learning situations, the more intense and lasting the experience and its results. This at once raises questions about full, personal involvement as opposed to vicarious involvement. Learning about tigers by being put into a cage with them might be effective but fatal! Full sensory involvement aiso raises questions about costs where the movement of numbers of students is involved, and alternative costs about setting up mockups and other simulated situations.



Adult education is a roof that covers different people.

At the point where most teachers deal with educational television, many things have been decided about it which affect what the teacher can do. Decisions have been made, first of all, to produce something presumably useful to teachers and learners in a given situation. Decisions have been made about what portions of content will be treated, how it will be treated, how long the programs will be, what vocabulary will be used, what operations will be shown, whether they will be shown closeup, at normal viewing distance, or possibly by diagram so that the operator of a machine can get an understanding of the entire run of operations. Decisions for the teacher have been made about whether an instructor's manual will be supplied. Decisions for the learner include whether or not there are work charts, workbooks, accompanying three-dimensional materials, built-in quizzes, etc.

Another important matter in regard to most instructional television is the decision whether to broadcast the material live (somewhat

unusual), whether to put the material on video tape for broadcast or use at the discretion of the teacher, whether to run the material through a cable system, through a plant or building system, or for individual playback in the room. All of these things influence the conditions of use by the teacher. The very existence of video-taped material forces a decision to use or not to use. The decision to use requires that the teacher know what it is he is deciding to use or to reject. This means previewing, which takes time and costs money. If the decision is made to use the material, it must be integrated with other material and timed for the best use in concert with the progress of the group. In some teaching situations, usually of the more routine nature and frequently in training rather than in education, the decisions are made for the convenience of the instructor or trainer. The instructor's guide says that lesson five comes on Friday and at ten minutes past nine the instructor says, "and now class we will see a video-taped production dealing with the assembly and testing of the XL-R3." For the group leader, on the other hand, who is conducting a serious exploration of the dynamics of behavior of small groups of people, delicate judgments must be made about when the group is ready to see a taped case-study presentation on the board meeting of Supremo University in order to do an analysis based on what they presumably have learned thus far.

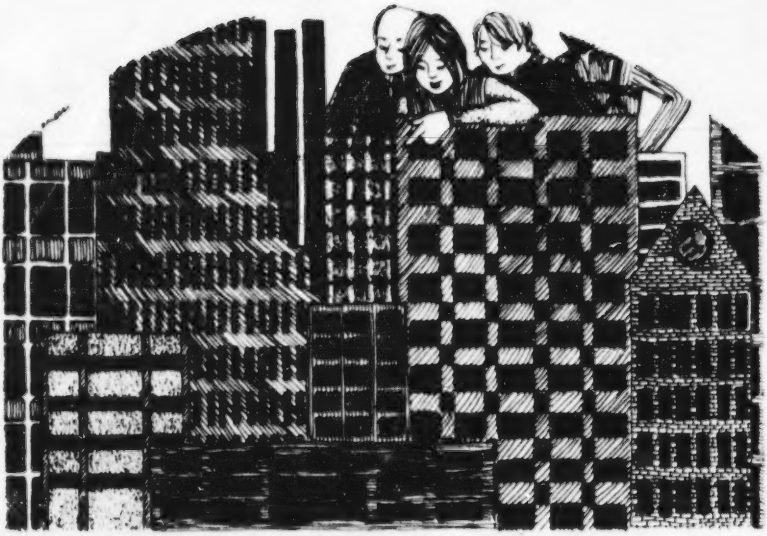
Instructional motion pictures present a number of conditions similar to video-taped material. Indeed, some people believe that the only inherent difference between motion pictures and television is that of contemporaneity. It is, obviously, important in certain learning situations to see things as they are actually happening. In many cases it is sufficient to be able to see what happens as things are brought to a certain point, although it may have happened a week or a year ago. If certain chemicals are added in a retort, certain reactions will occur. In order to visualize this and for the learner to get a feeling for it, it is not necessary that it be actually happening in front of him, particularly when to do so it is expensive or dangerous.

Altogether too little use is made in many training and educational situations of three-dimensional models and mock-ups. The difference between a model and a mock-up is that a mock-up usually represents only part of a total item or object, although it can be a rather elaborate affair. A mock-up of the firing mechanism of an automatic rifle can be to exact scale or can be thirty times larger than the real thing, but it does not have to include the magazine, barrel, and stock in order for the group to understand this particular mechanism and its operation. Mock-ups are usually operational although not necessarily. A mock-up of a frontier village might include the storefronts and some bushes temporarily planted, but have no substantial and complete buildings back of

the facade. Models, it should be recalled, can be to a scale much different from the real thing. A model combine for harvesting small grain could be of toy size; most toys, indeed, are models of a large thing, such as trucks, tractors, and baby dolls. A model of the human eye can very profitably be as large as a football so that beginning learners can get a better picture of the construction and operation of the components of the eye before they advance further in their studies. Although models are generally presumed to be exact replicas except for size, there are models in which some details are missing. Models frequently omit details in order to illustrate more clearly the function or operation that is under investigation. The teacher must be sure that these omissions do not mislead and confuse students. In some cases, merely the accumulation of wearmarks, dirt and dust, and sometimes oil or other foreign substances will so change the appearance of used and working items that the student may have a bit of difficulty in believing that the model is actually of the real object.

Specimens sometimes are confused by teachers and students alike with models. A specimen of a truckload of wheat probably will consist of a few hundred grains presumably taken from a representative part of the load. A specimen of a tanker of oil presumably is dipped from a typical part of the cargo. A specimen of an automobile may be one taken off the assembly line at random. Specimens are useful for analysis and instruction, but there is always the risk that they are specimens of a restricted part of the entire lot of something, and therefore, may give the learner a dangerously wrong impression of what is reality. Benito Mussolini and Mohandas K. Gandhi were both specimens of male *homo sapiens*, but to study one of them and conclude that all other male members of the species were like that would lead to serious error.

Charts, maps, graphs, still pictures, drawings, and similar materials are useful instructional materials for many different situations, although they are less frequently used in certain settings than in others. People in academic fields where most of the communication is verbal rather than direct or by non-verbal symbols frequently fail to explore the use of materials of this kind. An example of the general neglect of this kind of materials would be the low-level knowledge of *place geography* among Americans. Ask most Americans where they would be if they went eighteen hundred miles directly south of New York, and you will get answers so far from the truth that they are funny but also pathetic. Ask them if they went twenty-five hundred miles directly east of New York and some of them will think that they would be in England! The simple use of a globe (a ball with a skin which is a map fixed on it) would relieve this kind of ignorance, but few of us use it. Very few Americans have any real understanding of the solar system, and are



We expect 15,000,000,000 people on earth by 2176! Adult educators, have we got a job for you!

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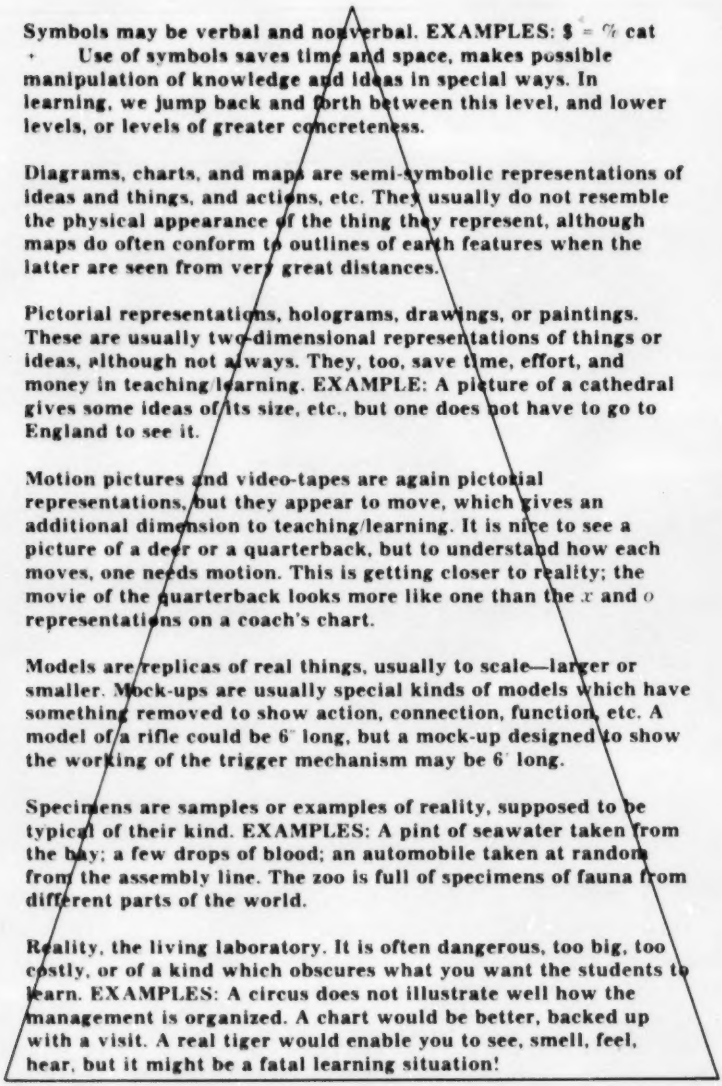
probably unable to locate the five visible planets, to tell why the moon looks different at different times, where the north star is, etc. Again, some simple application of charts plus real experience plus perhaps use of the planetarium would relieve this. Most Americans frankly just don't care about this kind of information. Many householders would be unable to trace the movement of water into and out of their homes. Very few of them could give even a child's-level explanation of how the telephone works; or how it is that a box in their house can have moving pictures on it with the sound of people speaking, music playing, football players being tackled, etc.—the device we commonly call *TV*. Exceedingly few Americans could give a formula by which we could figure the capacity of a bathtub, since most bathtubs are not of a regular shape. Few of them probably would realize that at least they could find the volume by emptying a two-gallon pail into it until it became full. Few could even give accurate directions on how to get from their home to a familiar place in town, and cannot draw a simple and satisfactory map to any reasonable scale. The use of some of the two-dimensional instructional materials mentioned in this paragraph can relieve those conditions.

Seven levels of abstraction are commonly dealt with in the teaching/learning interaction, ranging from the most abstract at the apex of the triangle down to the most concrete at the base.



Symbols may be verbal and nonverbal. EXAMPLES: $ = % cat + Use of symbols saves time and space, makes possible manipulation of knowledge and ideas in special ways. In learning, we jump back and forth between this level, and lower levels, or levels of greater concreteness.

Diagrams, charts, and maps are semi-symbolic representations of ideas and things, and actions, etc. They usually do not resemble the physical appearance of the thing they represent, although maps do often conform to outlines of earth features when the latter are seen from very great distances.

Pictorial representations, holograms, drawings, or paintings. These are usually two-dimensional representations of things or ideas, although not always. They, too, save time, effort, and money in teaching/learning. EXAMPLE: A picture of a cathedral gives some ideas of its size, etc., but one does not have to go to England to see it.

Motion pictures and video-tapes are again pictorial representations, but they appear to move, which gives an additional dimension to teaching/learning. It is nice to see a picture of a deer or a quarterback, but to understand how each moves, one needs motion. This is getting closer to reality; the movie of the quarterback looks more like one than the *x* and *o* representations on a coach's chart.

Models are replicas of real things, usually to scale—larger or smaller. Mock-ups are usually special kinds of models which have something removed to show action, connection, function, etc. A model of a rifle could be 6" long, but a mock-up designed to show the working of the trigger mechanism may be 6' long.

Specimens are samples or examples of reality, supposed to be typical of their kind. EXAMPLES: A pint of seawater taken from the bay; a few drops of blood; an automobile taken at random from the assembly line. The zoo is full of specimens of fauna from different parts of the world.

Reality, the living laboratory. It is often dangerous, too big, too costly, or of a kind which obscures what you want the students to learn. EXAMPLES: A circus does not illustrate well how the management is organized. A chart would be better, backed up with a visit. A real tiger would enable you to see, smell, feel, hear, but it might be a fatal learning situation!

Communicability is inversely related to concreteness.

EPILOG

This modest treatment of the topic of teaching adults has not been intended as a handbook in the usual sense of that word; it contains no instructional formulae, diagrams, nor step-by-step instructions. On the other hand, it has not been intended to be essentially homiletic. It has more specifically been designed to help people who are already interested in trying to be more effective teachers, become just that. The person who approaches teaching (and probably most other interactions with fellow human beings) as a business arrangement, or as a chore to be put up with, really has no proper place in the whole enterprise of teaching and learning. If these people could be safely directed to some more pedestrian occupation it would be happy for all concerned. Persons responsible for educational ventures who tolerate these people's continued work, whether they are industrial trainers, medical technicians, professors at the university, or whatever, are guilty of gross misconduct of their offices.

There is much in teaching to be glad about—more than the bare stroking of the ego or the aura or respectability that usually is attached to the enterprise. There is a good feeling that comes from the same source of feelings we experience when we know we have done our best, and have accomplished worthwhile results. These pleasures are not reserved just for the masters—the people at the peak of their careers. Many beginning teachers report this kind of pleasure.

The competent teacher is very likely one who never believes that he has the job "down pat." Learning throughout life is essential to the growth and development and the pleasure of discovery, that are part of every good teacher. It is in this spirit that this book has been prepared.

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